

# Diabetes and the Brain

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*Edited by*

Geert Jan Biessels

José A. Luchsinger



Humana Press

# DIABETES AND THE BRAIN

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 **Humana Press**

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ISBN 978-1-60327-849-2

e-ISBN 978-1-60327-850-8

DOI 10.1007/978-1-60327-850-8

Library of Congress Control Number: 2009933948

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# CONTEMPORARY DIABETES

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ARISTIDIS VEVES, MD, DSC

*SERIES EDITOR*

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***Diabetes and the Brain***, edited by Geert Jan Biessels, MD, PhD, Jose A. Luchsinger, MD, MPH

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# Preface

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Diabetes, particularly type 2 or adult onset diabetes, is increasing in prevalence in the world. In the United States the prevalence of diabetes is over 12% in persons of age 60 years and older. The prevalence in Europe is 8–10% and catching up with the United States. The trend worldwide is for this prevalence to increase given the epidemic of overweight and obesity (2/3 of the adult United States population is overweight or obese). Thus, the fact that diabetes affects the brain is of enormous public health importance.

While acute cerebral complications of diabetes, such as hypoglycemia or stroke, are well recognized, more chronic cerebral conditions, such as cognitive and mood disorders, have failed to be recognized until recently. The last few decades have yielded new insights linking type 2 diabetes to dementia and other cognitive disorders and into the cognitive consequences of type 1 diabetes. Hence, the impact of diabetes on the brain has become a very multifaceted topic. Clinical care and research on cerebral complications of diabetes now involve internists, neurologists, psychiatrists, psychologists, and basic scientists. There has been a surge in pre-clinical and clinical research papers ranging from topics such as management of hyperglycemia in acute stroke to disturbances in insulin signaling in Alzheimer's disease. This has led to substantial progress in the field, but it also makes it more difficult for those involved to keep track of all relevant developments.

This book provides an update on the acute and chronic consequences of diabetes in the brain. We brought together experts from around the world in order to provide a helicopter view of this intriguing topic. The book offers not only in-depth reviews on cerebral complications of diabetes, but also introductory chapters on current insights into the pathophysiology and clinical management of diabetes and its complications and on stroke, neuropsychological assessment and dementia. With these “update on diabetes for neurologists” and “update on stroke and dementia for diabetologists” we hope to offer relevant and easily accessible background information that puts the cerebral complications of diabetes into context.

The target audience of this book is broad and includes medical specialists taking care of persons with diabetes and researchers in the diabetes field. It is important to point out that most clinicians and researchers think that the only complications of diabetes are microvascular (retinopathy, renal, neuropathy) and macrovascular (heart disease and stroke). Given increased longevity, the

aging of our societies, and the increasing prevalence of diabetes, the chronic consequences of diabetes in the brain are at least as important but have failed to acquire the recognition that more traditional complications have. We believe that this book will bring the consequence of diabetes in the brain to the mainstream and thus has the potential to change the field.

We thank Aristidis Veves, from Harvard Medical School, Boston, for inviting us to put together this book for the Humana Press “Contemporary Diabetes” series, for which he is the series editor. We would also like to thank Paul Dolgert and Connie Walsh from Springer Science and Business Media for their help and support. Finally, we thank the authors, all internationally distinguished in their fields, for their invaluable contributions to this book.

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# DIABETES AND THE BRAIN

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# Contents

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## PART I UPDATE ON DIABETES FOR NEUROLOGISTS

- 1 Type 1 Diabetes . . . . . 3  
*Edith W.M.T. ter Braak and Aline M.E. Stades*
- 2 Type 2 Diabetes . . . . . 33  
*Hermes J. Florez, Alex A. Sanchez, and Jennifer B. Marks*

## PART II UPDATE ON STROKE AND DEMENTIA FOR DIABETOLOGISTS

- 3 Acute Ischemic Stroke . . . . . 57  
*L. Jaap Kappelle and H. Bart van der Worp*
- 4 Neuropsychological Assessment . . . . . 77  
*Roy P.C. Kessels and Augustina M.A. Brands*
- 5 Clinical Evaluation and Treatment of Cognitive  
Dysfunction and Dementia . . . . . 103  
*Laura A. van de Pol, Wiesje M. van der Flier,  
and Philip Scheltens*

## PART III ACUTE CEREBRAL DISTURBANCES IN DIABETES

- 6 Hypoglycemia . . . . . 131  
*Brian M. Frier*
- 7 Ketoacidosis and Hyperglycemic Hyperosmolar State . . . . . 159  
*Matthew Freeby and Susana Ebner*
- 8 Stroke and Diabetes Mellitus . . . . . 183  
*Boris N. Mankovsky*
- 9 Hyperglycemia in Acute Stroke . . . . . 219  
*Nyika D. Kruyt and Yvo W.B.M. Roos*

## PART IV LONG-TERM CEREBRAL COMPLICATIONS IN DIABETES

- 10 Cognition in Children and Adolescents with Type 1 Diabetes . . 251  
*Christopher M. Ryan*



11	Cognition in Adults with Type 1 Diabetes . . . . .	277
	<i>Augustina M.A. Brands, Roy P.C. Kessels, and Christopher M. Ryan</i>	
12	Cognition in Type 2 Diabetes or Pre-diabetic Stages . . . . .	295
	<i>Esther van den Berg, Yael D. Reijmer, and Geert Jan Biessels</i>	
13	Type 2 Diabetes, Related Conditions, and Dementia . . . . .	323
	<i>José Alejandro Luchsinger</i>	
14	Diabetes and Depression . . . . .	343
	<i>Maria D. Llorente and Julie E. Malphurs</i>	
15	Central Nervous System Involvement in Diabetic Neuropathy . . .	365
	<i>Dinesh Selvarajah, Iain D. Wilkinson, Rajiv A. Gandhi, and Solomon Tesfaye</i>	
PART V EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY		
16	Animal Models . . . . .	387
	<i>Geert Jan Biessels</i>	
17	Pathobiology of Diabetic Encephalopathy in Animal Models . . .	409
	<i>Anders A.F. Sima</i>	
18	The Role of Insulin Resistance in Age-Related Cognitive Decline and Dementia . . . . .	433
	<i>G. Stennis Watson and Suzanne Craft</i>	
	Subject Index . . . . .	459

# I

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## UPDATE ON DIABETES FOR NEUROLOGISTS

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# 1

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## Type 1 Diabetes

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*Edith W.M.T. ter Braak  
and Aline M.E. Stades*

### CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION  
EPIDEMIOLOGY  
PATHOPHYSIOLOGY  
SHORT-TERM COMPLICATIONS  
LONG-TERM COMPLICATIONS  
TREATMENT  
LIFESTYLE  
LIVING WITH DIABETES  
REFERENCES

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### ABSTRACT

Type 1 diabetes is a life long metabolic disorder that is characterized by absolute insulin deficiency resulting in hyperglycemia and lipolysis. Type 1 diabetes accounts for 5–10% of the total diabetes population, the majority of the other patients has type 2 diabetes. Insulin deficiency originates with autoimmune mediated  $\beta$ -cell destruction. Without insulin treatment, type 1 diabetes leads to dehydration and ketoacidosis and can ultimately be fatal. Prolonged exposure to hyperglycemia is responsible for microvascular damage in the eye, kidneys and nervous system and contributes to macrovascular disease of the coronary, cerebral and peripheral arteries. Limited joint mobility and the diabetic foot are other complications related to chronic hyperglycemia. Currently, the corner stone of the treatment of type 1 diabetes is exogenous insulin substitution aiming to restore near-normal glycemia in order to prevent or delay long-term complications. Recurrent hypoglycemia is a frequent complication and a serious burden for both patients and their significant others. Additional therapeutic interventions consist of lifestyle modifications, particularly aiming

From: *Contemporary Diabetes: Diabetes and the Brain*

Edited by: G. J. Biessels, J. A. Luchsinger (eds.), DOI 10.1007/978-1-60327-850-8\_1

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to reduce cardiovascular risk factors. In the future, the necessity for substitution with exogenous insulin may be replaced by  $\beta$ -cell transplantation or even preventive  $\beta$ -cell preservation. Patients must receive proper education and support, since they have to manage their chronic disease on a daily basis.

**Key words:** Type 1 Diabetes; Insulin; Ketoacidosis; Hyperglycemia; Hypoglycemia; Autoimmune;  $\beta$ -cells; Long-term complications; Education; Self-care.

INTRODUCTION

The current classification of diabetes in different subtypes is based on the defect(s) that causes hyperglycemia, namely, aberrant or deficient insulin secretion or insufficient insulin action (1). Type 1 diabetes (T1D) originates from autoimmune-mediated destruction of the pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells that normally produce insulin, thus resulting in absolute insulin deficiency. Other types of pancreatic disease involving destruction of the  $\beta$ -cells, such as alcoholic pancreatitis, are classified otherwise. Previously, T1D was also known as juvenile-onset diabetes or insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM). However, these expressions may result in misclassification and indistinct prognosis and therapeutic options. Criteria to diagnose T1D are shown in Table 1 (1). Note that diagnostic criteria do not include HbA1c levels, which are exclusively used to follow glycemic control, but not diagnosis.

Table 1  
Diagnostic criteria for diabetes mellitus (ADA)

<i>Diabetes mellitus (overall)</i>
Symptoms of polyuria, polydipsia, unexplained weight loss
or
Random plasma glucose $\geq$ 11.1 mmol/l (200 mg/dl) on 2 subsequent days
or
Fasting ( $>8$ h) plasma glucose $\geq$ 7.0 mmol/l (126 mg/dl) on 2 subsequent days
<i>Type 1 diabetes mellitus</i>
Autoantibody GAD positive and/or autoantibody tyrosine phosphatase IA-2/IA-2 $\beta$
or
Presenting with ketoacidosis
<i>Additional criteria for diabetes mellitus type 1 (used for research purposes)</i>
Fasting C-peptide $<0.1$ nmol/l
2 mg Glucagon IV-stimulated C-peptide $<0.3$ nmol/l

Adapted from ADA Position Statement (23) and an interpretation of data from Service et al. (63).

## EPIDEMIOLOGY

Several studies report T1D incidence numbers of 0.1–36.8/100,000 subjects worldwide (2). Above the age of 15 years ketoacidosis at presentation occurs on average in 10% of the population; in children ketoacidosis at presentation is more frequent (3, 4). Overall, publications report a male predominance (1.8 male/female ratio) and a seasonal pattern with higher incidence in November through March in European countries. Worldwide, the incidence of T1D is higher in more developed countries (1, 2, 4–6). Throughout the last decades the overall incidence of T1D has not changed. Recent reports from several European countries, however, suggest that the median age at diagnosis decreased over the last decades. After asthma, T1D is a leading cause of chronic disease in children.

A diagnosis of T1D at the age of 30 or above was formerly referred to as latent-onset autoimmune diabetes in adults (LADA). This is not infrequent and it is estimated that about 10% of the population with a phenotype of type 2 diabetes actually had (autoimmune-mediated) T1D (7). This specific population has anti-GAD or IA-2 antibodies by definition, albeit that in the first 6 months to 6 years after diagnosis these patients do not depend on insulin and that part of them is overweight resulting in concomitant (relative) insulin resistance. In this particular subpopulation,  $\beta$ -cell destruction is only slowly progressive and may take up to 12 years to be complete. An association of the occurrence of T1D with viral infections in early childhood or with vaccination could not be confirmed in recent studies (8).

## PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

### *Genetics and Autoimmunity*

T1D is a cell-mediated autoimmune disease with destruction of  $\beta$ -cells that are located in the pancreatic islets of Langerhans. Several islet cell autoantibodies have been isolated: glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD) and tyrosine phosphatases IA-2 and IA-2 $\beta$ . The majority of type 1 diabetic patients (75–95%) have positive autoantibodies at the time of manifestation. In addition, observations in families have shown an association with the HLA complex, especially the class 2 molecules, suggesting a predominant role in aberrances in T-cell-mediated responses via cytotoxic and helper T cells (6). T1D is strongly associated with HLA DQA and DQB genes, but this can differ among various populations throughout the world. In contrast, twin studies show a low concordant prevalence of T1D of only 30–55%.